



Catalytic hydrogenation of nitrate on Cu–Pd supported on titanate nanotube and the experiment after aging, sulfide fouling and regeneration procedures



Hsiu-Yu Chen ^a, Shang-Lien Lo ^{a,b,*}, Hsin-Hung Ou ^b

^a Graduate Institute of Environmental Engineering, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan, ROC

^b Research Center for Environmental Pollution Prevention and Control Technology, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan, ROC

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 8 May 2012

Received in revised form 29 April 2013

Accepted 3 May 2013

Available online 14 May 2013

Keywords:

Titanate nanotubes

Sulfide fouling

Regeneration

XPS

ABSTRACT

Although catalytic nitrate reduction is efficient for water treatment, catalysts are sensitive to other components in the environment. In this study, the catalytic performance of Cu–Pd/TNTs (palladium–copper/titanate nanotubes) toward nitrate reduction was investigated for their nitrate reduction ability in CO₂-saturated condition. The inhibiting effects due to catalyst aging and sulfide fouling were also investigated. The results showed that TNTs-supported bimetallic catalysts were more resistant to catalyst poisoning than TiO₂-supported ones. This could be due to the fact that the specific geometry of TNTs shelter bimetallic catalyst from oxidation as the valence state of the catalysts is evidenced by the XPS analysis. Regarding the regeneration methods, Cu–Pd/TNTs showed higher nitrate reduction rates than Cu–Pd/TiO₂ after aging, sulfide fouling and regeneration procedures. The valence state of the catalyst analyzed by XPS revealed that metals on the TNTs were slightly more oxidized than metals on TiO₂. Therefore TNTs can prevent the supported metals from being oxidized. Moreover, heated NaBH₄-saturated nitrogen gas (403 °K) could effectively revive the nitrate reduction rates of sulfide-fouled catalysts.

© 2013 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Nitrate (NO₃[–]) contamination is a serious environmental concern as elevated NO₃[–] levels in drinking water could lead to damaging human health effects such as the blue baby syndrome [1]. Bimetallic catalyst systems (e.g., Cu–Pd) have been demonstrated to be an effective alternative for treating NO₃[–] contaminated water via NO₃[–] hydrogenation [2–5]. However, one issue in the use of bimetallic catalyst treatment is the poisoning of the bimetallic catalyst. Sulfur fouling on the catalyst surface has an inhibitory effect on NO₃[–] hydrogenation; the life of bimetallic catalyst depends on its sulfur tolerance [6,7]. One option to deal with the catalyst poisoning problem is to use suitable support materials such as titanate nanotubes (TNTs). TNT is an emerging material that has been extensively applied and has been reported to be an excellent catalyst support because of its specific geometry feature [8] and remarkable specific surface area ($\sim 256 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) [9]. There are several TNT synthesis methods [10–13]; the microwave hydrothermal treatment method

was selected in this study because it can reduce the fabrication time relative to that of the conventional hydrothermal treatment.

Previous study indicated that TNTs is able to shelter Pt from oxidation during photocatalytic conversion of aqueous ammonia because Pt was observed to be aligned on the inner surfaces of tubes in addition to the regular deposition on the outer surfaces [14]. The objective of this study was to investigate NO₃[–] hydrogenation performance on TNTs-supported bimetallic Cu–Pd catalyst. The NO₃[–] hydrogenation performance, as measured by the distribution of various nitrogen species (N₂, NO₂[–], and NH₄⁺) was examined. In addition, NO₃[–] hydrogenation on TiO₂-supported Cu–Pd catalyst was tested for comparison. Furthermore, regeneration methods for reactivating sulfur-fouled bimetallic catalysts [15,16] were investigated.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation and characterization

TNTs (BET area, ca. 256 m² g^{–1}) used in this study were prepared by the microwave hydrothermal treatment; the synthesis process was described in detail in previous work [9,17]. The commercial P25 TiO₂ was purchased from Degussa (ca. anatase 79%, rutile 21%; BET area, ca. 50 m² g^{–1}) and used as raw material for TNT synthesis and the reference support. Briefly, 0.6 g of P25 TiO₂ was mixed with

* Corresponding author at: Graduate Institute of Environmental Engineering, National Taiwan University, 71, Chou-Shan Road, Taipei 106, Taiwan, ROC. Tel.: +886 2 2362 5373; fax: +886 2 2392 8821.

E-mail address: sllo@ntu.edu.tw (S.-L. Lo).

70 mL of 10 M NaOH for 40 min. The mixture was then synthesized at 403 °K under 400 W microwave irradiation for 3 h. The resulting precipitate was centrifuged and rinsed with 0.5 M HCl. Finally, it was washed with deionized water.

Both TNTs and P25 TiO₂ were used as support materials comparative the study to compare their performances. Cu–Pd/supports were prepared by the thermal impregnation method. Supports were merged with the desired bimetallic solutions. The percentages, by weight, of total bimetals (the ratio of Cu to Pd is 1:1) in these catalysts were 2.5, 5, 10, 20 and 30%, respectively. The mixture was stirred and heated simultaneously until the water in the system had almost completely evaporated and then dried overnight in a freeze dryer. The derived product was calcined for 2 h at 573 °K by flowing 20% H₂/80% N₂ at 100 mL min⁻¹. XRD measurements showed that TNTs remained the nanotubular morphology after calcination (see the Support Information for the XRD patterns). All catalyst materials were stored in a vacuum chamber to prevent oxidation.

Catalysts were examined by transmission (TEM, Hitachi H-7100) and X-ray photoelectron spectrometry (XPS, PHI 5000 VersaProbe). TEM was used to observe the shape of the synthesized supports, and XPS was used to observe the valence state of the catalysts. Catalyst samples were stored in an anaerobic bag (100% N₂) prior to analysis. All spectra were calibrated by the C 1s spectrum at 285.0 eV.

2.2. Nitrate hydrogenation experiments

Batch experiments were carried out at room temperature and atmospheric pressure with a catalyst concentration of 0.4 g L⁻¹ and

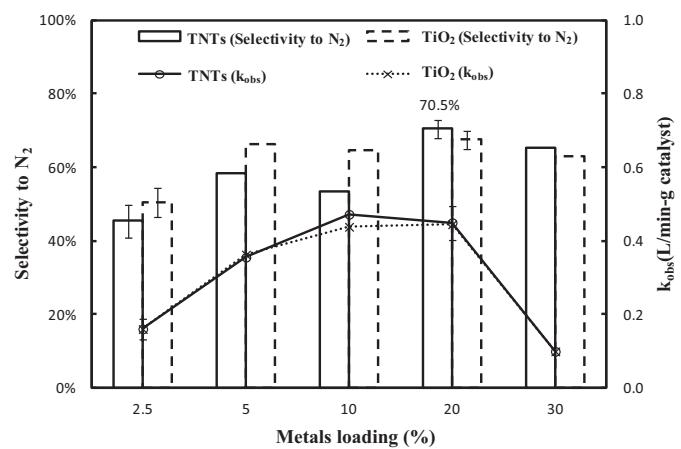


Fig. 1. Comparison of selectivity to N₂ and k_{obs} between Cu–Pd/TNTs and Cu–Pd/TiO₂.

a NO₃⁻ concentration of 20 mg L⁻¹. H₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) and CO₂ (30 mL min⁻¹) were bubbled into the solution to act as a reductant and pH buffer, respectively.

The concentrations of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ were determined by ion chromatography (Metrohm 790 personal IC; Metrosep A Supp 4–250 column; 1.8 mM Na₂CO₃/1.7 mM NaHCO₃ eluent; 1 mL min⁻¹ eluent flow rate). The concentrations of NH₄⁺ were quantified by an ammonia gas-sensing electrode (model 95-12; Thermo Orion, Beverly, MA) connected to a model 420A Thermo

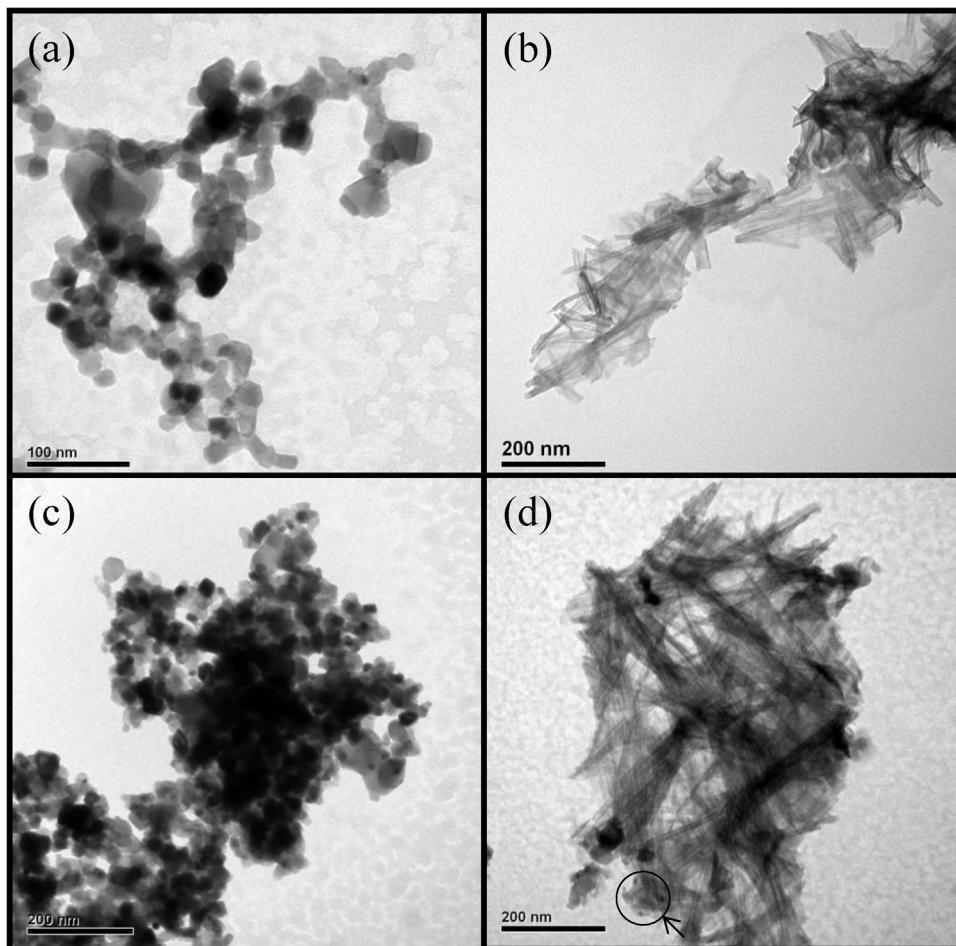


Fig. 2. TEM of (a) TiO₂ (P25), (b) TNTs, (c) 20% Cu–Pd/TiO₂, and (d) 20% Cu–Pd/TNTs.

Orion Meter. An ionic strength adjustor (ISA, Thermo Orion) was added to maintain a high pH value for the samples such that all ammonia nitrogen could be measured as NH_3 .

Some studies indicate that only N_2 and NH_4^+ are the end products [2,3,18] in this process. The selectivity for N_2 can be calculated by Eq. (1) where the subscripts 0 and f refer to the initial and final concentrations. To compare the rates of NO_3^- degradation, the observed catalyst-normalized first-order rate constants were calculated by Eq. (2). H_2 is not included in Eq. (2) because it was in excess during the reaction.

Selectivity of $\text{N}_2 = 100\%$

$$\times \frac{\left\{ [\text{NO}_3^- - \text{NO}]_0 - [\text{NO}_3^- - \text{N}]_f - [\text{NO}_2^- - \text{N}]_f - [\text{NH}_4^+ - \text{N}]_f \right\}}{\left\{ [\text{NO}_3^- - \text{N}]_0 - [\text{NO}_3^- - \text{N}]_f \right\}} \quad (1)$$

$$-\frac{dC_{\text{NO}_3^-}}{dt} \frac{1}{C_{\text{cat.}}} = k_{\text{obs}} C_{\text{NO}_3^-} \quad (2)$$

To observe the deactivation phenomena, the batch experiments were carried out with multi-spiking. Specific amounts of NO_3^- were introduced in the batch system during each interval (30 min) to restore the concentration to the initial concentration (20 mg L^{-1}). The batch experiments were also carried out with aged catalysts. Catalysts were aged in air for 3 and 15 days and then used for NO_3^- degradation.

2.3. Fouling and regeneration experiments

The catalysts were fouled using solutions of $\text{Na}_2\text{S}\cdot10\text{H}_2\text{O}$. First, H_2 (135 mL min^{-1}) and CO_2 (50 mL min^{-1}) were bubbled into $\text{Na}_2\text{S}\cdot10\text{H}_2\text{O}$ solutions to remove dissolved oxygen and to adjust the pH to 5. The freshly prepared catalysts were added to the treated solutions, and the mixtures were capped and stirred for 15 h. Finally, the sulfide-fouled catalysts were dried in a freeze dryer.

Aqueous NaOCl has been employed for effective regeneration of sulfide-fouled catalyst. However, it is ineffective for the regeneration of Cu-based catalysts due to the dissolution of Cu in aqueous NaOCl . To investigate possible particle regeneration, the sulfide-fouled catalysts were treated with heated gas along with regenerants. The fouled catalysts were regenerated for 1 h at 403°K in gas-phase regenerative experiments, and NaOCl or NaBH_4 saturated nitrogen gas was obtained by continuously bubbling nitrogen gas into a NaOCl or NaBH_4 solution, which produced the regenerative environment. Different concentrations of NaBH_4 were used to control the amount of agent flowing into the regenerative system.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Nitrate reduction (kinetic, multi-spiking and aging experiments)

The effect of total metal mass-loading on NO_3^- hydrogenation was investigated, as shown in Fig. 1. There was no significant difference in k_{obs} between TNTs and TiO_2 . In the case of TNTs, a volcano curve was observed; k_{obs} maximum was $0.45 \text{ L min}^{-1} \text{ g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$ with 20% mass loading. In comparison, the optimal metal mass-loading in the case of TiO_2 was 5%. These results suggest that active surface area of the support for bimetallic catalyst may be partly responsible for the NO_3^- degradation performance [19]. In terms of N_2 selectivity, the maximum N_2 selectivity was 70.5% for TNTs-supported catalysts, as compared to 67.4% for TiO_2 -supported catalyst. The

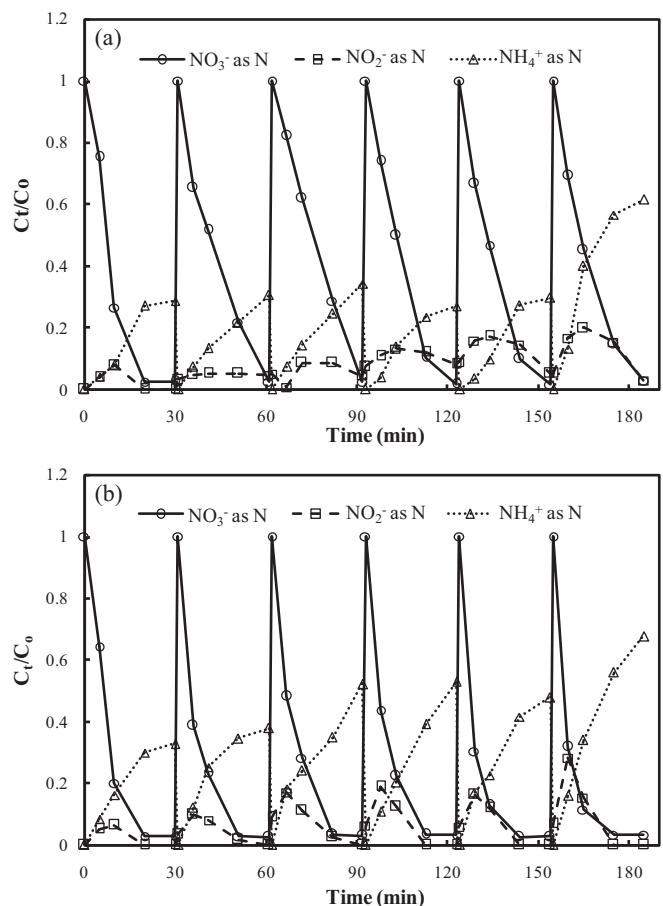


Fig. 3. Nitrate reduction, nitrite reduction and ammonia production of each spiking test on (a) Cu-Pd/TNTs and (b) Cu-Pd/TiO₂.

higher N_2 selectivity on TNTs-supported metals can be explained by the fact that TNTs provide an environment for relatively high contact probability between Cu and Pd because the efficiency of N_2 formation is a function of the contact probability between Cu and Pd [20]. The specific surface area of TNTs was reported to be about $256 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, which is higher than that of TiO_2 , $50 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. In the case of TNTs with low metal loading, the contact probability between Cu and Pd over TNTs is not as high as that on TiO_2 . Therefore, the N_2 selectivity on both the TiO_2 and TNT-supported Cu-Pd catalysts increases with increasing metal loading. The optimum metal loading, in the case of TiO_2 , occurred at 5%, possibly due to the spherical structure of TiO_2 . In other words, the metals on TiO_2 piled up as the metal loading increased beyond 5%. TEM image shown in Fig. 2 provides evidence that supports this statement. By comparison, metals supported on TNTs were also observed in Fig. 2 which shows the metal deposition on the inner and outer surface of nanotubes. There are references which used a similar method for TNTs-supported catalysts preparation [8,21], which also loaded similar amount of metals on TNTs. Therefore, the TNTs are definitely capable of supporting the amount of metals.

Although TNTs-supported catalysts presents slightly higher N_2 selectivity than TiO_2 supported catalysts, the following results showed that TNTs can prevent the supported metals from being oxidized after aging or sulfide fouling process. The tube structure appears to promote the mediated-electron transfer, which prevented Cu-Pd catalysts from being oxidized and led to relatively high selectivity toward N_2 . Multi-spiking experiments were carried out to investigate the potential of catalyst durability (Fig. 3). In the case of TiO_2 -supported catalysts, the NO_2^- and NH_4^+ yields

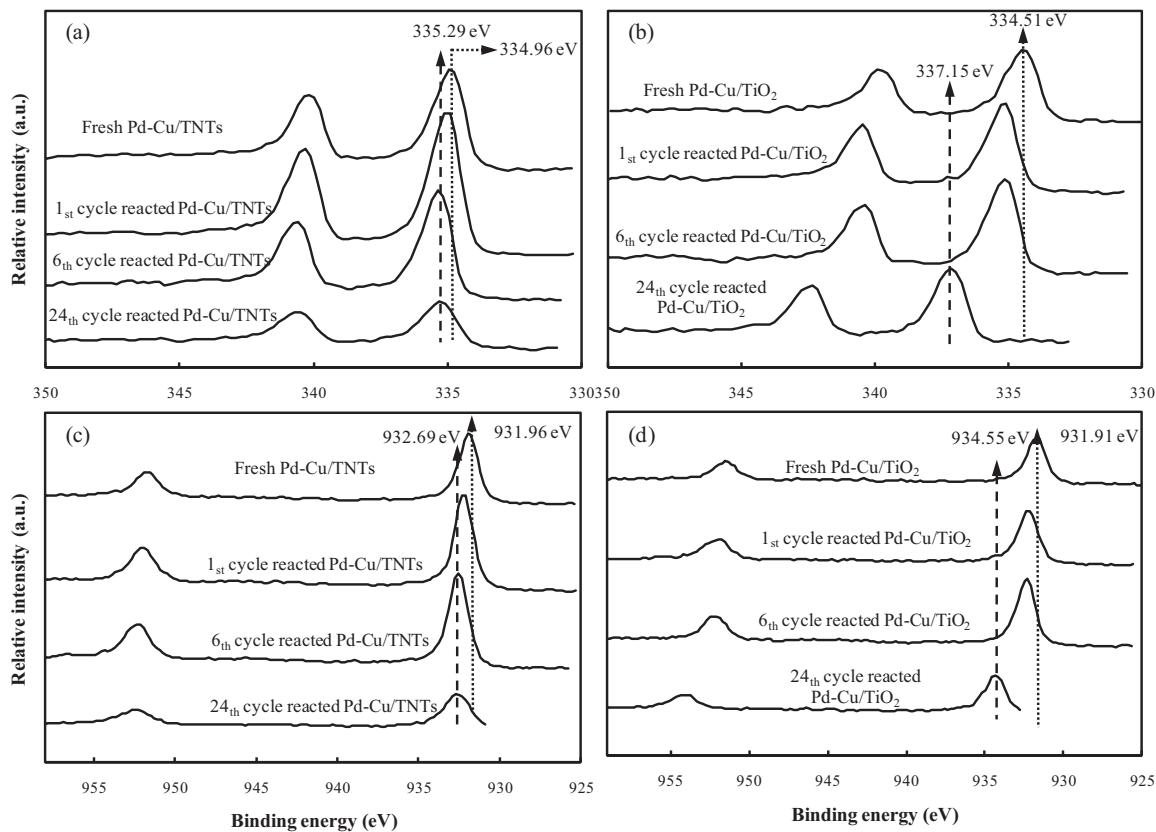


Fig. 4. XPS for Pd 3d region on (a) Cu–Pd/TNTs and (b) Cu–Pd/TiO₂ and for Cu 2p region on (c) Cu–Pd/TNTs and (b) Cu–Pd/TiO₂. Samples were including fresh, 1st, 6th, and 24th cycle reacted catalysts.

increased with each cycle. The accumulation of these two species is indicative of the decrease in the selectivity toward N₂ formation. In contrast, N₂ formation on the TNT-supported catalysts decreased after the 6th cycle. On the other hand, the peak NO₂[–] yield generated on Cu–Pd/TNTs catalysts is lower than that on the Cu–Pd/TiO₂ catalysts. This result was interesting because NO₂[–] is more bio-toxic than NO₃[–]. According to the observed results, it was believed that not only did TNTs enhance the catalyst durability, but they also promoted mediated electron transfer.

As shown in Fig. 4, XPS analysis was used to determine the change in the oxidation states of metal catalysts before and after NO₃[–] reduction. With increasing NO₃[–] dosage cycle, the Pd and Cu were observed to shift less with Cu–Pd/TNTs than with Cu–Pd/TiO₂. The shift in binding energy is generally indicative of a change of binding environment. Therefore, trivial shift in binding energy in the case of Cu–Pd/TNTs partly reflects the stability of catalyst after reaction. On the other hand, the ratio of Ti³⁺ to Ti⁴⁺ decreased with increasing NO₃[–] dosage cycle in the case of the Cu–Pd/TNTs (Table 1), but not for Cu–Pd/TiO₂. These results suggest that TNTs, in contrast to TiO₂, could promote electron transfer to Pd or Cu. In other words, TNTs can be considered a sacrificial material that prevents the supported bimetallic catalysts from being oxidized.

Batch experiments were also carried out with aged catalysts. Catalysts could lose their activity as a result of reacting with chemicals in the air. Therefore, NO₃[–] degradations on aged catalysts were investigated to examine the ability of avoiding inactivation. As shown in Fig. 5, Cu–Pd/TNTs were deactivated until aging for 15 days as compared to the case of 3-day aged TiO₂-supported catalysts with the dramatic decreases in the selectivity toward N₂ formation and the observed rate constant. In addition, NO₃[–] could not be degraded completely in 3 h by the 15-day aged Cu–Pd/TiO₂ catalysts, so the selectivity toward N₂ was not calculated.

As shown in Table 1, Ti³⁺ ions on the TNTs and on the TiO₂ were oxidized to Ti⁴⁺ after 15 days of aging. Curve fitting indicated that, in addition to the relative small amount of oxidized Cu and Pd, zero-valent Pd and Cu are the dominate species in case of TNTs-supported catalyst. In comparison, TiO₂-supported catalyst showed no zero valent metals after 15 days of aging (Fig. 6). Further evidence regarding this point is the presence of shake-up satellite in Cu spectrum of TiO₂-supported catalyst, which indicates the involvement of Cu²⁺ [22]. In other words, TNTs is able to protect metal catalyst from oxidation in the ambient environment. These results suggest that the metals on TiO₂ were deactivated more easily in air. Moreover, crystal-lattice oxygen (Ti⁴⁺–O) and active species of oxygen (Ti–OH) existed simultaneously, and Ti–OH on the TNTs increased significantly after aging for 15 days (Table 1). This

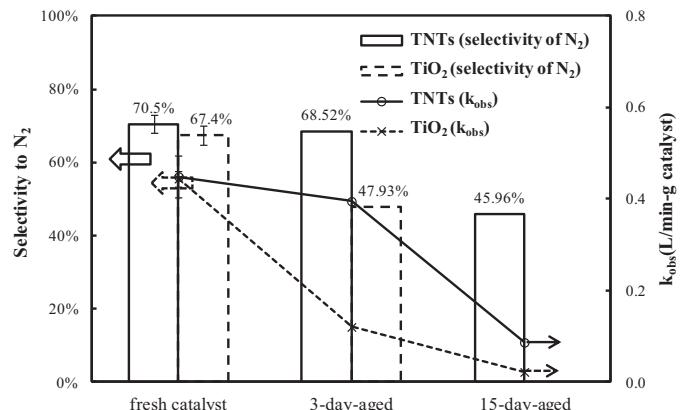


Fig. 5. Comparison of the selectivity to N₂ and k_{obs} among aged catalysts.

Table 1

XPS for Ti 3d region, O 1s region and S 1s region on various catalysts.

Analyzed catalyst	Binding energy (eV)												
	Ti ₄ ⁺	Ti ₃ ⁺	Ti ⁴⁺ -O	Ti-OH	S ²⁻	S ⁶⁺							
Pd–Cu/TiO ₂	Fresh	458.5	80.1%	456.0	19.9%	530.4	60.1%	531.8	39.9%	–	–	–	–
	1st cycle reacted	458.9	79.2%	456.4	20.8%	530.1	60.9%	531.4	39.1%	–	–	–	–
	6th cycle reacted	458.8	74.9%	456.1	25.1%	530.4	60.1%	531.8	39.9%	–	–	–	–
	24th cycle reacted	459.3	77.9%	456.6	22.1%	530.5	51.4%	531.7	48.6%	–	–	–	–
	15-day-aged	458.7	100.0%	–	–	529.9	65.9%	531.5	34.1%	–	–	–	–
	0.1 mM-sulfide-fouled	458.7	100.0%	–	–	530.0	55.4%	531.4	44.6%	162.3	42.7%	168.4	57.3%
	1 mM-sulfide-fouled	458.1	100.0%	–	–	529.6	60.3%	530.2	39.7%	161.7	54.1%	168.0	45.9%
Pd–Cu/TNTs	Fresh	458.8	79.2%	456.4	20.8%	530.5	57.2%	531.9	42.8%	–	–	–	–
	1st cycle reacted	459.0	86.7%	456.7	13.3%	530.2	59.3%	531.5	40.7%	–	–	–	–
	6th cycle reacted	459.0	85.7%	456.8	14.3%	530.5	57.2%	531.7	42.8%	–	–	–	–
	24th cycle reacted	459.2	100.0%	–	–	530.3	49.9%	531.6	50.1%	–	–	–	–
	15-day-aged	459.0	100.0%	458.1	50.6%	529.3	21.7%	531.1	78.3%	–	–	–	–
	0.1 mM-sulfide-fouled	459.0	100.0%	–	–	530.2	59.3%	531.5	40.7%	162.1	55.5%	168.9	44.5%
	1 mM-sulfide-fouled	458.8	100.0%	–	–	530.1	60.9%	531.4	39.1%	161.6	60.4%	168.5	39.6%
Regenerated Pd–Cu/TNTs	5 mM NaBH ₄	458.4	49.9%	456.9	50.1%	530.2	100.0%	–	–	161.3	100.0%	–	–
	20 mM NaBH ₄	459.9	36.2%	456.7	63.8%	529.5	100.0%	–	–	162.6	100.0%	–	–
	1 mM NaOCl	459.2	80.4%	457.4	19.6%	530.2	100.0%	–	–	162.3	78.2%	169.1	21.8%

suggests that there was more chemisorbed water on the TNT surface due to the TNT's high specific area.

3.2. Fouling

Although Pd-based catalysts provide effective NO_3^- reduction rates, they are sensitive to some natural materials in water such as humic acid, chloride and sulfur species [6]. Because natural water may contain total sulfur concentrations as high as 10^{-4} M and sulfur compounds adversely affect catalytic performance, $\text{Na}_2\text{S}\cdot10\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was used to prepare S-fouled catalysts to investigate how fouling

effect would impair the performance of the catalysts. Three sulfide concentrations (0.1, 0.5 and 1 mM S/g catalyst) were applied to the bimetal catalysts to examine the durability of the catalyst supports against sulfide fouling. The k_{obs} for NO_3^- reduction on S-fouled catalysts is shown in Fig. 7. Only a 30% decrease in k_{obs} was observed for 0.1 mM S-fouled TNT-supported catalysts, whereas almost no activity was observed in the case of TiO_2 . It was interesting to note that the N_2 yield on the S-fouled catalysts was not affected. TNT-supported catalysts gave an approximately 45% N_2 selectivity, even with relatively high-S-fouling conditions (0.5 mM sulfide). This implies that TNT-supported catalysts retained the

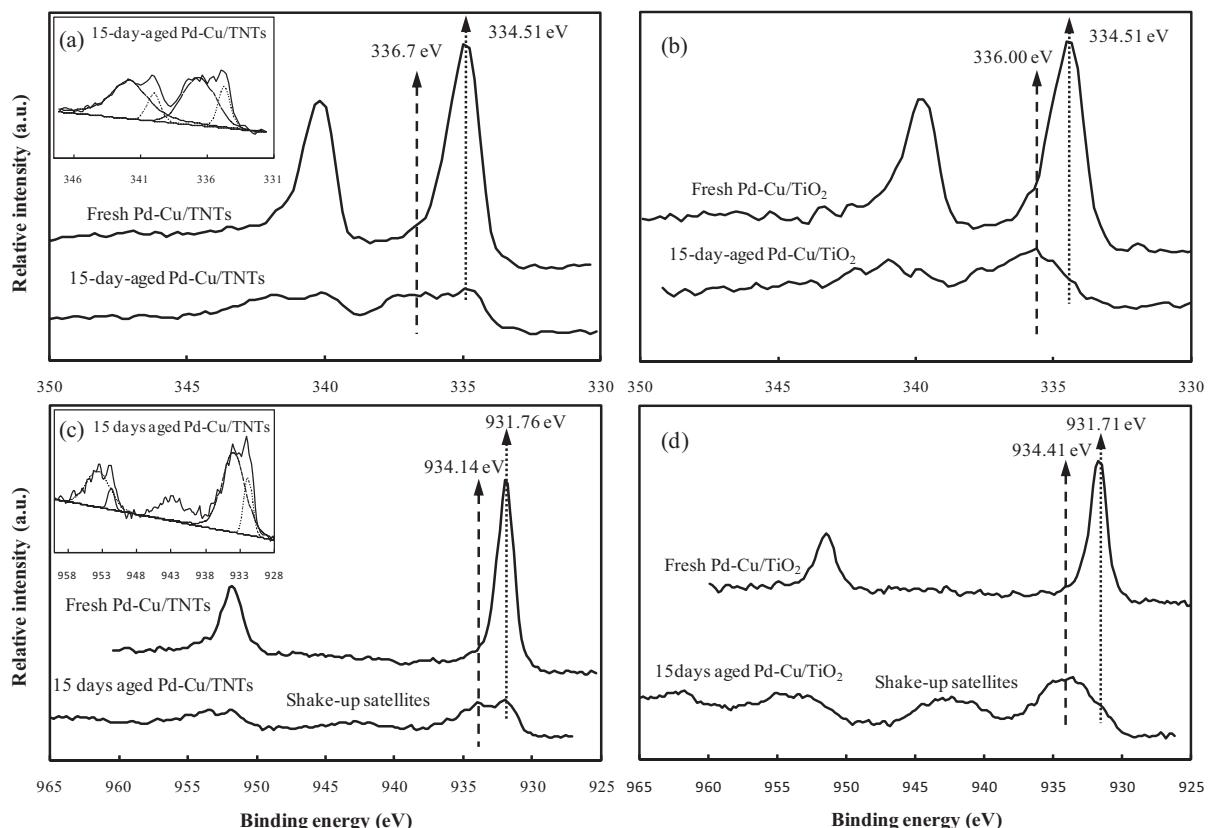


Fig. 6. XPS for Pd 3d region on (a) Cu–Pd/TNTs and (b) Cu–Pd/TiO₂ and for Cu 2p region on (c) Cu–Pd/TNTs and (b) Cu–Pd/TiO₂. Samples were including fresh and 15-day-aged catalysts.

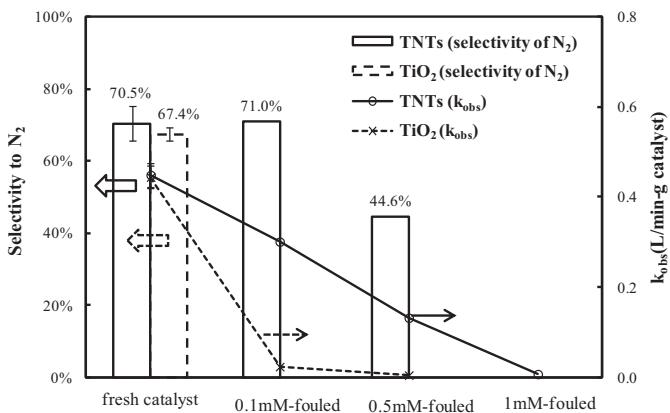


Fig. 7. Comparison of the selectivity to N_2 and k_{obs} among sulfide-fouled catalysts.

catalytic capability toward NO_3^- even under the S-fouling condition (0.5 mM sulfide). In other words, TNT appears to provide excellent contaminant tolerance in natural water.

Although S^{2-} ($Na_2S \cdot 10H_2O$) is supposed to be the only one species in the S1s region of the XPS spectra, S^{2-} and S^{6+} were also found (Table 1). This suggests the possible oxidation of S^{2-} to S^{6+} by the active oxygen species on catalyst supports, e.g., Ti-OH, as evidenced in the O1s spectra [23]. In the case of the 1 mM S-fouled catalyst, the concentration of S^{6+} was lower than that of the 0.1 mM S-fouled catalyst. This was likely due to the limited number of active oxygen species on the surface of 1 mM S-fouled catalyst. The contributions of Ti-OH to the O 1s region on TNTs and on TiO_2 are both about 40% of the total oxygen content. However, only limited amount of S^{2-} can be oxidized in the case of 1 mM S-fouled catalyst since the relatively high S^{2-} amount could inhibit the oxidation potential of active oxidation species. With more S-poisoning, Ti-OH can only oxidize limited amount of S^{2-} ; thus, a higher concentration of S^{2-} creates a high oxidative ability and deactivates the catalysts.

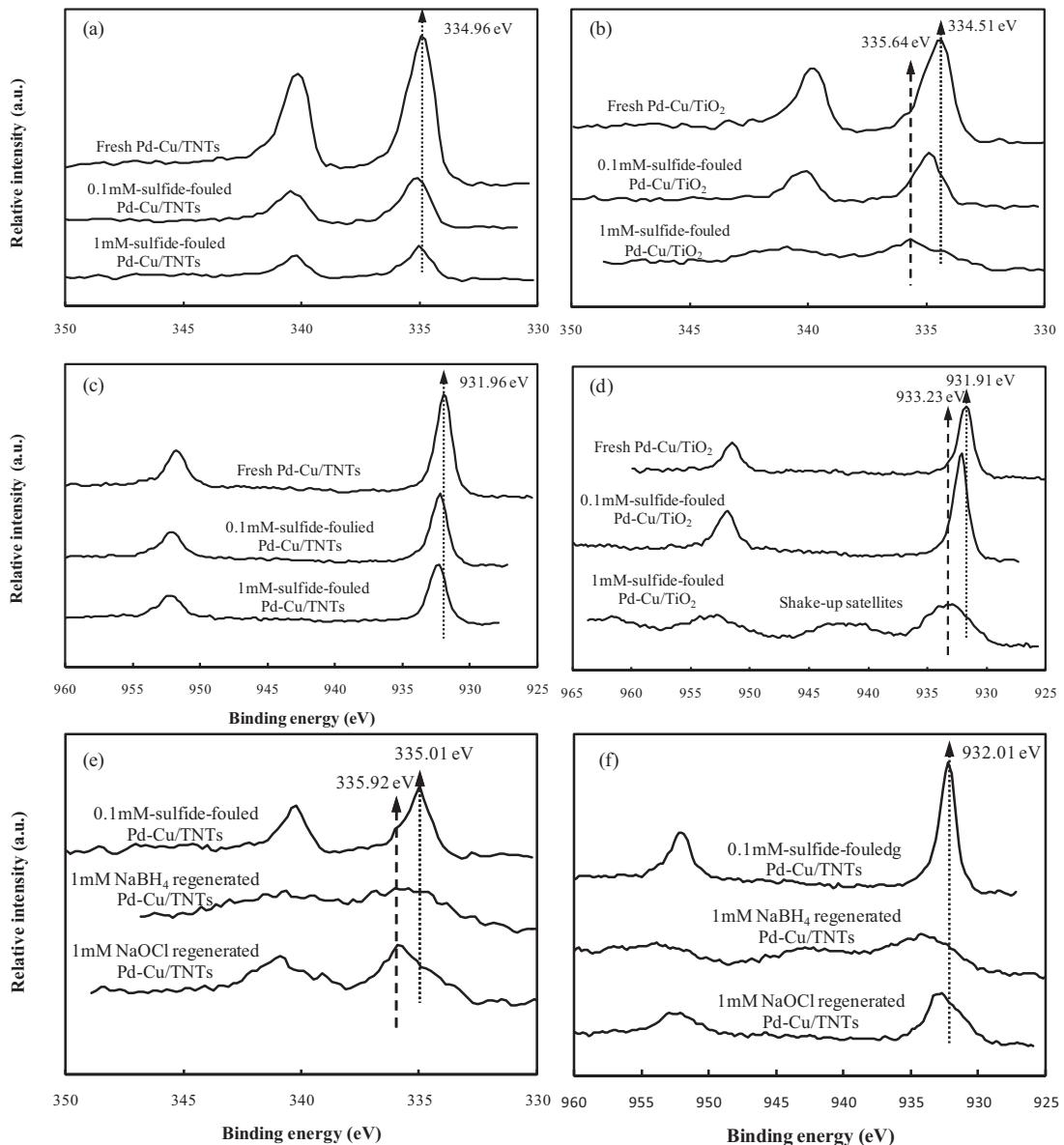


Fig. 8. XPS for Pd 3d region on (a) Cu-Pd/TNTs, (b) Cu-Pd/ TiO_2 and (e) regenerated Cu-Pd/TNTs and for Cu 2p region on (c) Cu-Pd/TNTs, (b) Cu-Pd/ TiO_2 and (e) regenerated Cu-Pd/TNTs. Samples were including fresh, 0.1 mM S-fouled, 1 mM S-fouled catalysts and 0.1 mM S-fouled Cu-Pd/TNTs after regeneration.

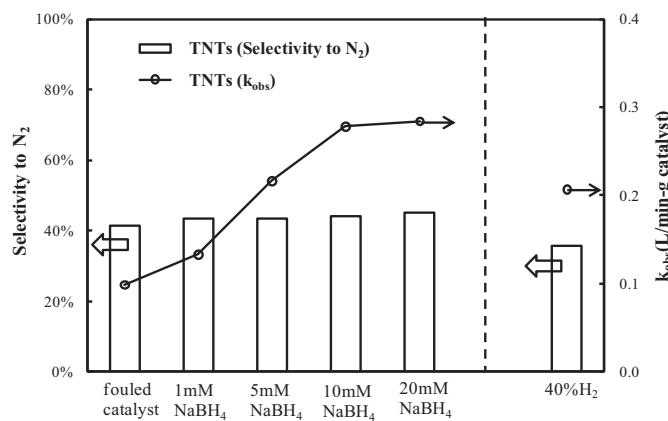


Fig. 9. Comparison of the selectivity to N_2 and k_{obs} among catalysts treated by different regenerative conditions.

This explains the observation that 1 mM S-fouled catalysts were completely deactivated.

The Pd 3d and Cu 2p spectra (Fig. 8) showed a trivial shift to higher binding energy in the case of Cu–Pd/TNTs after fouling with sulfide. In contrast, the spectra of Pd 3d and Cu 2p in the case of Cu–Pd/TiO₂ exhibited a greater shift toward higher binding energy. Regarding the Cu 2p spectra, the shake-up line (shake-up satellites) observed in the case of Cu–Pd/TiO₂ showed that the bimetals supported on TiO₂ were oxidized more than those on the TNTs. Moreover, Ti³⁺ on the TNTs and on the TiO₂ were oxidized to Ti⁴⁺ after sulfide fouling. These results are consistent to those of the aging experiments.

3.3. Regeneration

Two regeneration methods, oxidative (NaOCl) and reductive (NaBH₄) treatments, were studied to explore an effective approach to revive the 20% Cu–Pd/TNTs fouled by 0.5 mM Na₂S·10H₂O. The regeneration treatment with NaOCl failed to revive the fouled catalyst, but NaBH₄ did. Therefore the effect of NaBH₄ concentration on the regeneration of fouled-catalysts was further investigated. The degradation kinetic of NO₃[–] increased with the concentration of NaBH₄, as shown in Fig. 9, but the selectivity toward N₂ remained at 40%. Another effective regeneration method is the use of heated 40% H₂/60% N₂ gas, which showed the similar results with NaBH₄ method. The k_{obs} was revived from $0.099 \text{ L min}^{-1} \text{ g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$ to $0.28 \text{ L min}^{-1} \text{ g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$, and about 60% of the fresh catalyst was recovered (the k_{obs} of fresh catalyst was $0.45 \text{ L min}^{-1} \text{ g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$).

As shown in Table 1, there was no Ti-OH and S⁶⁺ detected in Cu–Pd/TNTs treated with NaBH₄. This suggests that the possible oxidation of S^{2–} to S⁶⁺ by Ti-OH did not occur. On the other hand, there was some S⁶⁺ detected in Cu–Pd/TNTs treated with NaOCl suggesting that the possible oxidation of S^{2–} to S⁶⁺ by NaOCl.

As shown in Fig. 8, the Pd 3d and Cu 2p spectra exhibit a relatively large shift to higher binding energy after regeneration. This suggests that the more Pd and Cu were oxidized, the higher the S^{2–} concentration increased. Although metals were deactivated, Cu–Pd/TNTs were still effective for NO₃[–] reduction. Simultaneously, the ratio of Ti³⁺ to Ti⁴⁺ increased as the observed rate constant increased. These results suggest that TNTs provided electrons to promote NO₃[–] reduction, which was in agreement with the results of multi-spiking, aging and fouling experiments.

These results provided indirect evidence that TNTs were the crucial electron donors for NO₃[–] reduction, and the activity of Pd and Cu affected the N₂ selectivity.

4. Conclusions

The surface changes in catalysts analyzed by XPS made it possible to understand the catalysis mechanism during NO₃[–] reduction, aging, fouling and regeneration. We observed that supports provide electrons at the beginning of any oxidation process and that this electron transfer plays a key role in affecting catalyst activity. TNTs can be considered a sacrificial material that prevents the supported bimetals from being fouled; thus, the Cu–Pd/TNTs retained better activity than Cu–Pd/TiO₂. These results indicate that Cu–Pd/TNTs constitute a possible catalyst for treating NO₃[–] contaminated water in the environment. Additionally, heated NaBH₄-saturated nitrogen gas (403 K) was effective in improving the NO₃[–] reduction rates of sulfide-fouled catalysts, but ineffective in improving the selectivity for N₂. To make catalytic NO₃[–] reduction a feasible strategy for water treatment, it is recommended that additional research on suitable regenerative processes for promoting NO₃[–] reduction rates and the selectivity for N₂ be pursued.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2013.05.004>.

References

- [1] L.W. Canter, Nitrates in Groundwater, CRC Press, Boca Raton, 1997.
- [2] U. Pruse, M. Hanlein, J. Daum, K.-D. Vorlop, *Catalysis Today* 55 (2000) 79–90.
- [3] W. Gao, N. Guan, J. Chen, X. Guan, R. Jin, H. Zeng, Z. Liu, F. Zhang, *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* 46 (2003) 341–351.
- [4] Z. Wu, Z. Sheng, Y. Liu, H. Wang, N. Tang, J. Wang, *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 164 (2009) 542–548.
- [5] K. Nakamura, Y. Yoshida, I. Mikami, T. Okuhara, *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* 65 (2006) 31–36.
- [6] B.P. Chaplin, E. Roundy, K.A. Guy, J.R. Shapley, C.J. Werth, *Environmental Science & Technology* 40 (2006) 3075–3081.
- [7] K. Ito, T. Tomino, M.A. Ohshima, H. Kurokawa, K. Sugiyama, H. Miura, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 249 (2003) 19–26.
- [8] D. Bavykin, A. Lapkin, P. Plucinski, L. Torrente-Murciano, J. Friedrich, F. Walsh, *Topics in Catalysis* 39 (2006) 151–160.
- [9] H.H. Ou, S.L. Lo, Y.H. Liou, *Nanotechnology* 18 (2007) 175702.
- [10] P. Hoyer, *Langmuir* 12 (1996) 1411–1413.
- [11] M.H.T. Kasuga, A. Hoson, T. Sekino, K. Niihara, *Advanced Materials* 11 (1999) 1307–1311.
- [12] J. Zhao, X. Wang, R. Chen, L. Li, *Solid State Communications* 134 (2005) 705–710.
- [13] X. Wu, Q.-Z. Jiang, Z.-F. Ma, M. Fu, W.-F. Shangguan, *Solid State Communications* 136 (2005) 513–517.
- [14] H.H. Ou, M.R. Hoffmann, C.H. Liao, J.H. Hong, S.L. Lo, *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* 99 (2010) 74–80.
- [15] A. Li-Dun, D. You Quan, *Applied Catalysis* 66 (1990) 219–234.
- [16] B.P. Chaplin, J.R. Shapley, C.J. Werth, *Environmental Science & Technology* 41 (2007) 5491–5497.
- [17] H.H. Ou, C.H. Liao, Y.H. Liou, J.H. Hong, S.L. Lo, *Environmental Science & Technology* 42 (2008) 4507–4512.
- [18] Y.H. Liou, C.J. Lin, S.C. Weng, H.H. Ou, S.L. Lo, *Environmental Science & Technology* 43 (2009) 2482–2488.
- [19] W. Gao, R. Jin, J. Chen, X. Guan, H. Zeng, F. Zhang, N. Guan, *Catalysis Today* 90 (2004) 331–336.
- [20] U. Prusse, K.-D. Vorlop, *Journal of Molecular Catalysis A: Chemical* 173 (2001) 313–328.
- [21] L. Torrente-Murciano, A.A. Lapkin, D.V. Bavykin, F.C. Walsh, K. Wilson, *Journal of Catalysis* 245 (2007) 272–278.
- [22] C.C. Chusuei, M.A. Brookshier, D.W. Goodman, *Langmuir* 15 (1999) 2806–2808.
- [23] X. Tiancun, A. Lidun, Z. Weimin, S. Shishan, X. Guoxin, *Catalysis Letters* 12 (1992) 287–296.